NOUN CONSTRUCTION IN BIMANESE

KONSTRUKSI NOMINA DALAM BAHASA BIMA

Made Sri Satyawati[a], Ketut Widya Purnawati[b], I Nyoman Kardana[c]
[a,b]Fakultas Ilmu Budaya, Universitas Udayana, Bali, Indonesia
Jalan Pulau Nias No. 13 Denpasar
Telephone (0361) 224121, Faximile (0361) 224121
[c]Fakultas Sastra, Universitas Warmadewa, Bali, Indonesia
Jalan Terompong No. 24, Tanjung Bungkak, Denpasar
Telephone (0361) 223858, Faximile (0361) 235073
E-mail: srisatyawati@unud.ac.id

Abstract

Bimanese is an interesting language to observe because it is located in the area between two types of languages, namely an affixed language and an unaffixed language (Satyawati, 2010, p. 2). With such conditions, of course Bimanese will have characteristics in both languages. From several studies (Arafik (2007), Jauhari (2000), Owens (2000), and Satyawati (2010), studies related to noun constituents have not been studied.The results of previous studies focused more on general syntactic studies, especially on syntactic relations and the valence of Bimanese, even though it is really very important to observe each Bimanese constituent so that the speakers can describe Bimanese grammar gradually. For the first phase, the research will observe the nominalizer of the language. Functional Grammar by Kroeger (2005) and some concepts from Van Valin and Dixon will be applied to analyze the collected data. The theory used is related to theory of noun. It is hoped that the aim of the research- to find out the nominal system in Bimanes if it is similar to Indonesian- can be known. Method used to collect data is elicitation method completed with recording and note taking technique, while for analyzing data distributional method and equivalence method are applied. The results of the study will show the forms of nominalizer whether they are morphological or syntactical marker.

Keywords: Bimanese, nominalizer, clitics, typology

Abstract

Bahasa Bima merupakan bahasa yang menarik untuk diamati karena letak penuturnya di antara dua tipe bahasa, yaitu bahasa berafiks dan bahasa tak berafiks (Satyawati, 2010, p. 2). Dengan kondisi yang demikian, tentunya bahasa Bima akan memiliki ciri di kedua bahasa tersebut. Dari beberapa penelitian (Arafik (2007), Jauhari (2000), Owens (2000), dan Satyawati (2010), kajian yang berkaitan dengan konstituen nomina belum dikaji. Hasil penelitian sebelumnya lebih banyak difokuskan pada kajian sintaksis secara umum, khususnya pada relasi sintaksis dan valensi Bahasa Bima. Padahal, sesungguhnya sangatlah penting untuk mengamati setiap konstituen bahasa Bima agar dapat mendeskripsikan gramatika bahasa Bima secara bertahap. Untuk tahap awal, dalam penelitian ini akan diamati penominal dalam bahasa Bima. Agar analisis data dapat dilakukan dengan baik, akan digunakan Functional

Grammar yang disampaikan oleh Kroeger (2005) dan juga beberapa konsep dari Van Valin dan Dixon. Teori yang digunakan adalah teori tentang Nomina. Dengan harapan, tujuan penelitian untuk mengetahui sistem penominal dalam bahasa Bima apakah serupa dengan bahasa Indonesia dapat diketahui. Metode yang digunakan dalam mengumpulkan metode simak dan metode cakap, sedangkan untuk menganalisis data menggunakan metode padan dan distribusional dengan bantuan teknik lesap dan teknik substitusi. Hasil studi ini berupa pemarkah penominal, apakah berbentuk morfologis atau sintaksis.

Kata kunci: *bahasa Bima, penominal, klitik, tipologi*

INTRODUCTION

Bimanese often called Nggahi Mbojo is a Western Malayo-Polynesian (WMP) (de Casparis 1998, Blust 2008) located in West Nusa Tenggara and is spoken most people on the island of Sumbawa, Indonesia (Wouk, 2016). Similar to languages in the world, this language also has generality and specificity (Van Valin, 1980; 1997; 2005). Observation of Bimanese is inseparable from the philosophy of grammar, namely the function, form, and meaning so that it is implied that each language has characteristics that are different from other languages. Differences become a uniqueness that is used as a special feature of marking a language.

In general, Bimanese has the same sequence pattern as languages in Indonesia, namely Subjects, Predicates, Objects (SPO), whereas in particular, Bimanese has unique characteristics like languages in Eastern Indonesia. These unique characteristics will be observed part by part. In this study, what will be observed is about the way of forming nouns or nominalizer.

Nominalization is a process in which any elements or group of elements are made to function as a nominal group in the clause (Halliday, 2000). Lei, et al. (2018) found that the process of nominalization can condense informantion. Gerner (2012) states that the nominalized expression encodes semantic aspects of the verbal input, either its participants, its nonphysical properties, or the situation denoted by it.

The phenomenon of nominalization in a language is a process that generally occurs in a language because each language has a way of forming nouns, both in the form of words and phrases. However, the nomination process of each language tends to be different. For example, in Balinese and Indonesian, the nomination process is done with a prefix. Balinese uses the prefix pa, in order to form nouns such as (1) the verb *ulek* 'to pestle' becomes the noun *pangulekan* 'a tool to pestle something' and (2) *margi* 'road' becomes noun *pamargi* 'the way' (Kardana, 2005). But in sentences, nouns that function as constituents to fill in the functions of the Subject and Object cannot stand alone, but must be affixed with definite article *ne / e*.

The Description above explains that nominalization in Balinese uses the affixes *pa-* and definite marker –*ne*. Meanwhile in Indonesian, nominalization uses affix combination *pe-an* or suffix -*an* (Kridalaksana, 1992). This can be seen in example the verb *baca* 'read' and *beli* 'buyer becomes the noun *pembacaan* 'reading' and *pembeli* 'buyer'.

The study of Balinese and Indonesian is a preliminary study which hypothesizes that Bimanese is a language that has a marker that

functions as a nominalizer. The allegation is because Bimanese is a language that is located in the territory of Indonesia and closely allied in Balinese and Indonesian. The nominalisation analysis of Bimanese is examined by comparing between Bimanese and Indonesian.

The literatures studied related to Bimanese shows that none specifically discussed the nominalizer in Bimanese. Jonker is a linguist who began research on Bimanese in 1896 by documenting the results of his research in a book entitled Bimaneesche Spraakknsj. In his book, Jonker placed more emphasis on syntactic studies. Even though he used markers in Bimanese, he did not specifically discuss markers in Bimanese. Seventy-one years later, in 1967, observations of the morphology and syntax of Bimanese were repeated by several linguists. This is evidenced by the results of several studies entitled An Introduction on Bimanese Morphology by Soepardi (1967), Bimanese Structure by Ahmad (1976/1977), Morphological System of Bimanese Verbs by Rachman (1985), Bimanese Verbal Phrases by Indra et al. (1997), Bimanese Noun Morphology by Sudiati (1997), Lexicon Language Variation in Bimanese by Akhmad (1998), Pasivisation and Alternation of Core Arguments in Bimanese by Jauhari (2000), Agreement in Bimanese by Melanie Owens (2000), and Grammatical Relationship of Bimanese Causative and Applicative Construction by Arafiq (2005), Relationship of Bimanese Syntax by Made Sri Satyawati (2009), Valency and Syntactical Relations in Bimanese by Made Sri Satyawati (2009), and Diathesis of Bimanese by Made Sri Satyawati (2011).

The studies carried out by the linguists are the same research as Jonker, which looks at the study of the syntax of the Bimanese. Discussion of markers is not the focus of the study so that there is no discussion of markers specifically. Owens (2000) also observes the syntactic structure associated with the agreement of the Bimanese. Though the markers in Bimanese is one of the problems for Bimanese speakers since they cannot understand the function of the markers well.

METHOD

The study of this research is descriptive study. Based on the study, the data collected is data that is still actively used by speakers. The main data analysed in this study is spoken/oral data, while written data is used as supporting data. This field linguistic research uses methods (1) direct elicitation method completed with recording and note taking technique, and (2) elicitation checking method to collect data (Mithun, 2001).

The stages of data collection were done with a list of questions. A list of questions was asked directly to the key informants. During data collection, recording was done with the assistance of recording and note taking techniques. When the required data has been obtained completely, the results of the direct elicitation was asked again to several other informants. The number of informants questioned was be adjusted to the data produced. The process of data collection was stopped when all variations of the data in question were saturated. New informants provided the same information as previous informants. At that time, the oral data collection process was stopped, but written data collection was continued. That is because the written data we can get anytime and anywhere.

Mithun (2001) asserts that the quality and quantity of data is very dependent on (1) the researcher and (2) the time and expertise of the speaker. Mithun's statement is correct because

during the research, many obstacles occurred. Not only understanding in data collection is needed, but also researchers must understand the characteristics of the informants and of course linguistic theories in depth. If one of them cannot be fulfilled, data collection will be hampered. To produce maximum data and validity can be accounted for, the data collected is based on a list of questions compiled using a language that can be understood (connected language), both by speakers and by researchers. For example, in observing the terminology of the Bimanese we can do the following method.

Table 1 Observing the Terminology of the Bimanese

I eat rice.	*Oha ma-nga-ha ba nahu*	rice. HAB-eat. OBL. 1T
Rice is eaten by my mother.	*Oha ma-nga-ha ba ina-ku*	rice. HAB-eat. OBL. mother-1POSS
Rice is eaten by my friend.	*Oha ma-nga-ha ba lenga-ku*	rice. HAB-eat. OBL. friend-1POSS
Rice is eaten by him/her.	*Oha ma-nga-ha ba sia*	rice. HAB-eat. OBL. 3T
Cake is eaten by him/her.	*Pangaha ma-ngaha ba sia*	cake. HAB-eat. OBL. 3T
Cake was eaten by him/her.	*Pangaha ra-ngaha ba sia*	cake. PERF-eat. OBL. 3T
Cake will be eaten by him/her.	*Pangaha di-ngaha ba sia*	cake. IMPERF-eat. OBL. 3T

From the lines of sentences, it can be seen that the markers in Bimanese are *ma-* and *pa*. After the data was collected, the data was analyzed by making a list of analysis of the syntactic functions of the sentences collected. When the elements of subject, object, and complement were found, the data was made in a list. Why are the fillers of Subjects, Objects, and Complements collected? That is because those functions are generally filled by nouns. After making it in the list, then it was continued to analyze the data by looking at various possibili-

ties based on the collected data. Data analysis used the method of equivalence or matching the data with other languages such as Indonesian and sorting them out by distributional methods with the help of ellipsis, replacing, and inserting technique. Matching between the words *makan* in Indonesian and *ngaha* in Bimanese. Both are known to be verbs because they can occupy verb functions like in the sentence *saya makan* and *nahu kungaha* 'I eat'. Meanwhile, the distributional method serves to find out the constructors that construct a construction. For example, *kungaha* 'eating'. When *ku-* is deleted/removed, the construction becomes not grammatical. When it is replaced by *na-* marker, the construction returns grammatically. From this it is known that verbs that function as predicate in Bimanese require one constituent to build a grammatical construction.

Furthermore, Mithun explains that the ellipsis technique was a technique carried out by removing one element in lingual units. The usefulness of this technique is to determine the important of the element in a structure. If the results of the ellipsis are a non-grammatical construction, it means that the element which is removed is an element that has a high function or that element is absolutely necessary in the construction. Conversely, if the results obtained are a grammatical construction, the element is an element not absolutely necessary in the construction. For example, (1) *Ia duduk di sana* 'He sits there' and (2) *Ia tinggal di sana* 'He lives there'. If the element *di sana* is omitted in (1) and (2), it will become (1) He sits and (2) * He lives

The ellipsis technique can also be used to recognize polymorphemic word types. For example, a polymorphic construction contains the same affix, if the affix is removed, it is known the word type of the basis of the polymorphic

construction. In addition to recognizing the type of polymorphemic, the ellipsis technique can also be used to determine the monomorphemic form.

Replacing technique is a technique that is implemented by replacing certain elements with other elements. Its use in the field of syntax is to find out the level of similarity of the class or category replaced with substitute elements. If these elements can replace each other, the two elements are in the same category. The last is the inserting technique. Inserting technique is used to determine the closeness of an element. By using this technique, it can be seen the closeness of the inserted elements. After analyzing the collected data, the results of the research are in the form of rules. The rules are presented using formal and informal methods.

Informal method is a method that presents the results of data analysis using ordinary words, while formal method is a method that presents the results of data analysis using certain signs or symbols, such as arrows, asterisks, curly braces, letters of symbols as abbreviations, and various diagrams (Sudaryanto, 1993, p. 145). With the two presentations, it is expected that the results of the research presented can be understood more easily by the reader.

RESULT AND DISCCUSION

In every language, word classes must be recognized on the basis of grammatical criteria internal to that language. The nature of the criteria is likely to depend on the structural profil of the language (Dixon, 2011: 38). Dixon give an example (Latin and English) for that statement. For Latin, he recognized three lexical word classes, with the following properties: (1) class A, inflects for case and number', (2) class B, inflects for case, number, and gender, and (3) class C, inflects for tenses, aspect, mood, person, and number.

For English, he also recognized three lexical word clases and here the critiria are: (1) class X, takes suffix –*ing*; (2) class Y, may he immediately preceded by an aticle and need not be followed by another word; and (3) class Z, may be immediately preceded by an article and is then followed by another word (either one from class Y or another word from class Z).

The lexemes belonging to each of these classes show a certain range of meaning. They also have typical behavior in filling functional slot within a clause. It is because of a measure of simillarity of meaning and function that we may identity word classes between languages and uses for the same label for them. Dixon is characterized noun as follows. *Second,* Function: can always occur in an NP, which is an argument of predicate. In some languages, it has a secondary function as a head of predicate. *Third*, Semantics: The class of nouns always includes word reffering to concrete objects (and their pair), such as 'tree', 'stone', 'star', 'woman, 'water, and axe.

Although Dixon compares between verbs and nouns, but this study discussed only the class of nouns so that Class A, B, C, X, Y, Z will only be recognized by the criteria related to nouns, for example as follows. Base on basic criteries above, class A and Y are both indetified as noun. Latin has a rich morphology but not strict ordering of words within a phrase and within a clause. English has rather little morphology, but fairly strict rules of ordering. Bagaimana dengan bahasa Bima?

Major Function of Noun
Noun is a class of word that can only occur in an NP. The canonical scheme of contruction can be shown as:

Canoical Scheme

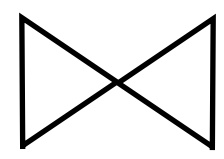Clause structure   predicate   NP as argument
(S,A,O, etc)

Word class   verb   noun

Noun Can Also be Head of Predicate

Clause structure   predicate   NP as argument
(S, A, O, etc)

Word class   verb   noun

The main function of nomina is as in scheme A, within an NP which is a predicate argument. But, it may have a secondary function as well, as head of a predicate. All shown by the thick line above. Gennerally, nouns are restricted to intransitive predicate.

By looking at the schema above it is known that noun is one of the categories of words that can occupy Subjects, Direct Objects, and Indirect Objects (Dixon, 2011; Kridalaksana, 1988). Generally, noun behavior is the same between one language and other languages. However, identifying nouns between one language and others varies. For example, in Indonesian, a noun can be identified by a negation because the negation of nouns is different from negation of other classes of words, that is, by negation bukan as in *bukan guru* 'not a teacher' (Kridalksana, 1992). Kroeger (2011) says that nouns can be traced with case markers and cross-reference. Dixon (1986) says that there are two ways to determine nouns, namely by recognizing the gender system and classification system.

The gender noun system is a system that is identical to the gender it refers to. Generally, this system will refer to gender, such as male, female, and neutral (Palmer,1994). Classifier is a stand-alone word, often a noun that occupies a special place in a noun phrase. However, it does not give meaning to certain nouns. In addition, nouns can also be identified by markers attached to them. However, not all languages can be recognized as mentioned above so that in this case the concept is used as the basis for recognizing nouns in order to reveal the nominal system in the Bimanese.

Clause Structure of Bimanese

The clause structure is a syntactic unit built by basic constituents in the form of a syntactic unit core and periphery. The core syntactic unit is filled with PRED semantic elements, PRED arguments, and peripherals are filled by PRED non-arguments. This can be seen in the English clause observed by Van Valin and La Polla (1997: 26), namely *John ate the sandwich in the library*. In that sentence, *John ate the sandwich* is the core clause consisting of the syntactic unit core, namely nucleus and the core argument, which is filled by PRED *ate* and NON-PRED core argumentS *John* and *the sandwich*, while the peripheral syntactic unit is filled with non-PRED argument in the form of FP *in the library*. If the English sentence becomes *John ate the sandwich yesterday in the library, John ate the sandwich* is still the core clause, while the periphery is not only *in the library,* but also *yesterday*. The whole of *John ate the sandwich yesterday in the library* is a clause. Clause structure of Bimanese, as presented in construction (4--8), belongs to clause structure that consist of core and periphery.

Data 1

(1) *Nahu tunti-ku   sura aka sodi.*
    1T   write-1T/PERF letter this morning
    'I wrote a letter this morning'

The core elements are expressed by constituents *Nahu tuntiku sura* 'I wrote the letter' and the periphery is stated by the constituent's *aka sodi* 'this morning'. Each syntactic unit is expressed by semantic elements, namely the nucleus is expressed by PRED in the form of verb *tuntiku* 'to write' and the core argument is expressed by arguments in PRED semantic representation in the form of *nahu* 'I' and *sura* ' letter ', while the periphery is expressed by a semantic element in the form of a non-PRED FP argument *aka sodi* 'this morning'. To be more easily understood, clause (4-8) is presented in the following two tables.

Table 2 Clause

CLAUSE			
CORE			PERI-PHERAL
Nahu	*tunti-ku*	*sura*	*aka sodi*
1S	write-1S/ PERF	letter	this morning
	NUCLEUS		

As explained above, it is also illustrated in the table that the structure of Bimanese clause can be constructed by the core (nucleus and PRED arguments) and periphery (non-PRED arguments). The nucleus declared by PRED is a determinant of the clause structure.

In relation to the nucleus, Van Vallin and La Polla (1997) state that the optimal representation of the clause structure in RRG reflects two universal differences in language in nonrelational relationships. One such difference is the mention of the semantic element in the form of PRED. Generally, PRED is expressed by verbs. That means PRED can be expressed by nonverbal constituents. Such things are also found in Bimanese so that Bimanese clause structure is described based on verbal and nonverbal PRED.

The structure of Bimanese clause is a nominal clause, adjectival clause, and verbal clause. The following is an example of a clause in the Bimanese.

Data 2

(2) *Ama sia **guru**.*
    father 3T teacher
    'His father is a teacher'

Table 3 Semantic Units as the Base of Syntactic Units in LSK

Semantic Elements	Syntactic Unit
PRED: tuntiku 'write'	Nucleus (PRED: tuntiku 'write')
Argument of PRED: nahu 'saya' and sura 'surat'	Core argument (argument of PRED: nahu 'I' and sura 'letter')
Nonargument: aka sodi 'this morning' (PP)	Peripheral (nonargument: aka sodi 'this morning' (PP)
PRED+argument: tuntiku + nahu & sura	Core: (PRED+argument: tuntiku+nahu & sura)
PRED+argument+nonargument: tuntiku + nahu & sura + aka sodi	*Clause = core + peripheral (PRED+argument +nonargument: nahu tuntiku sura aka sodi*

Data 3

(3) *Nahu **ana** sakola.*
    1T   children school
    'I am a student'
    *Sia **ana** siwe nahu.*
    3T children girl 1T
    'She is my daughter'

The noun clause in Bimanese shows a simple construction. In the clause, there are no markers of aspects that appear. This can be seen in examples (2) and (3). All constituents consist of monomorphemic constituents. Likewise, in the adjectival clause. The constructs compiled are simple construction clauses with no markers such as (4), (5), and (6). Meanwhile, the clause with the verb predicate is a fairly complex verb because it consists of polymorphic constituents, namely there are markers that are thought to be markers of aspects and agreement. This can be seen in data (7), (8), and (9).

Data 4

(4) *Tuta   nahu **naĕ**.*
    Head 1T   big
    'My head is big.'

Data 5

(5) *Ama sia **hengge**.*
    father 3T   sick
    'Your father is sick.'

Data 6

(6) *Sori   ede **ntoi**.*
    river DEM long
    'The river is long.'

Data 7

(7) *Nahu ku-**lao** <u>di</u>   amba.*
    1T   1J-go PREP market
    ' I went to market.'

Data 8

(8) *Ari   mone- ku   **maru**.*
    younger brother-1POS sleep
    'My younger brother is sleeping.'

Data 9

(9) *Nahu ku-**doho** <u>di</u>   kadera.*
   1T   1J-dudukPREP chair
    'I am sitting on the chair'

At (7) and (9) there are cross references and aspect markers, but at (8) there are possessive markers. The possessive marker shows that *ku-* does not only function as cross-referrers, but also as possessive marker. The possessive marker is located after the verb which functions as a predicate.

The Noun in the Bimanese

The noun in the Bimanese is like noun in any other languages in the world. The common feature of nouns possessed by Bimanese helps to identify these constituents because nouns in the construction of language clauses can be head predicate and verbs can be a head of predicate. For examples are as follows.
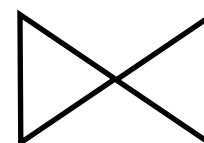
Canonical Scheme

Clause structure   predicate   NP as argument
(S, A, O, etc.) | |
                       | |

Word class   *kungaha*   *Nahu*
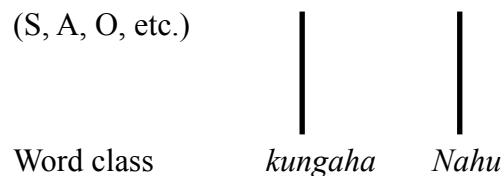
The words order in the Bimanese is SPO so the noun can be the head of predicate, nahu 'I' becomes the head of predicate of kungaha 'i eat'.

Noun Can Also be Head of Predicate

Clause structure   predicate   NP as argument
(S.A,O, etc)

Word class   maweli wea VP nahu (S) baju(O).

In the scheme B, it is shown that the noun in the Bimanese is not only functioned as a head of predicate nahu 'I', but also as an argument of the predicate baju 'clothes'.

Nominal Construction in Bimanese

Construction of nouns in Bimanese is similar to Indonesian. Bimanese is a language that has a few markers such as English, which is included in Class Y. There is an assumption that Bimanese is an an isolative language. However, this study does not attempt to prove that Bimanese is an isolative language. What is proven is that the construction of nouns in Bimanese is similar to Indonesian.

Bimanese has markers that help to mark a constituent. The results of data analysis show that the Bimanese has markers: *pa, di-, ma-, ku-, na-, wea, kai,* and *labo*. Of the few markers, there are markers that function as markers of aspects, agreement, valence, and noun markers. Noun markers in Bimanese are *di-* and *ma-* This can be seen in the following examples.

Data 10

(10) a. *Oha **di**-ngaha-na (ḇa sia) waŭ-*
     ra   mpoi. rice REL/IMPERF-
     eat-3 (OBL 3T) already-RES/PERF
     spoiled 'the rice that will be eaten
     (by him) has been spoiled.'
     b. *Oha ede   **di**-   ngaha-na (ḇa sia).*
     rice DEM IMPERF-rice-3 (OBL 3T)
     'The rice will be eaten (by him).'
      c. ***Di**- ngaha ede waŭ-   ra   mpoi.*
       Pn -eat   DEM already-RES/PERF basi
       'the food has been spoiled.'

Data 11

(11)a. *Dou-dou ma- kani kondo   masa*
     people   HAB-use necklase gold
     'The people with gold necklase'.'
      b. *Ma- kani kondo   masa dou-dou ede.*
      Pn use necklase gold people   dem
      'Who wore gold neckles are the people'

Example (11) shows a function in a clause structure. In example (a) the marker *di-* functions as relativizer so the subject *oha* 'rice' is relativized by *ngahana* 'to eat'. In the relative clause, there is a marker that functions as an agreement for the second person pronoun, that is, *ba sia* 'by him' 'so that *ba sia* 'by him' does not need to appear in the clause. Because of the di- relativizer, the clause becomes one FN construction in sentence (a). Meanwhile, in (b) it can be seen that the marker *di-* is marked with the agent of the second single person pronoun *–na* that is attached to the predicate *ngaha* 'to eat' becomes *dingaha* 'to be eaten by him'. Oha is not marked because it is a derived clause from the transitive clause. Example (14.c) is an example of a marker *di-* that functions as the nominalizer *dingaha* 'food'. In the construction, it is also marked by the definite marker *ede* 'that' that it becomes *dingaha ede waura mpoi* 'the food has been spoiled.'

Example (11) shows *ma-* in a clause construction. The marker *ma-* in the example (11) functions as an agreement. In (11.a) *ma-* functions as an agreement which marks the predicate of kani 'to use' to refer to the plural person pronoun so that it becomes *dou-dou ma-kani kondo masa* 'people wear gold neckless'. Ma- does not only function as agreement, but also as a marker of aspects that state habituative. Example (11.b) shows the function of *ma-* as nominalizer, namely *makani* 'user' in NP.

The data described above shows that the nominalizer markers can function as relativizer, aspect markers, and nominalizer. That means one constituent can apply anywhere. The nominalizer marker does not cause a change in the word category. Its function depends on the function and class of words marked. If it marks a verb it can function as a subject and mark constituents as nouns, but when it marks verbs

that function as predicates, *ma-* is a cross reference marker for the second person pronoun. Likewise, with marker *di-*. This marker has a function not only as a nominalizer and aspects marker like *ma-* but also as relativizer. In order to find out how the pattern of distribution of markers in the Bimanese, the following will be discussed about the distribution of markers in the Bimanese.

Bimanese is a language that does not recognize the existence of a gender that marks the noun, but there is a cross reference which states that the cross referenced is the subject, not the object, such as *ma-* in the example (11) which refers to the third plural personal pronoun. However, in example (11.a) it shows the construction of sentences that appear without predicates.

Distribution of Markers in Bimanese

The marker of Bimanese as described above is a marker that can mark aspects, nominalizer, possessiveness, and agreement. The pattern of distribution of Bimanese markers is very regular, especially those found in verb phrases that function as predicates. The distribution pattern is before the verb and after verb. Before the means present, while the one after the verb means past. If the aspect marker appears before predicate, the agreement will appear after the predicate. At such times, agreement does not function as an aspect marker. Next is the construction of markers in the Bimanese.

Data 12

(12) *Dou-dou ma- kani kondo masa*
    people   HAB use necklase gold
    'the people are with gold necklase.'

Data 13

(13) a. *Nahu   ma- hengga-na ncai aka.*
    1T   HAB- open-   3$_J$ door dem
    'I opened the door'

b. *Nahu ra-   hengga-na ncai aka.*
   1T PERF- open-3$_J$ door dem
   'I have opened the door.'

Data 14

(14) a. *Nahu ma- kaă-na mpori aka.*
    1T   HAB- burn-3$_J$ grass dem
    'I burned the grass.'

b. *Nahu ra-   kaă-na$_J$ mpori aka.*
   1T   PERF- burnr-3$_J$ grass dem
   'I have burned the grass'.

Example (12) shows the predicate marked with the aspect and agreement marker *ma-*. The aspect shown is habituative because it is located before the predicate, while example (13) shows that the construction of the verb contains the habitual and agreement for the personal pronoun *ncai* 'door' which functions as an object. Likewise, in (13.b). At (13.b) there is a difference in the aspect markers. The aspect markers deal with marker of the perfective aspect *ra-* so that it becomes *rahenggana* 'has opened the door'. That is the same as (14). Example (14.a) consists of aspect markers and agreement. Likewise, on (14.b). In (14.a) the marker is showing habituative aspect, while at (14.b) the marker is for the perfective aspect.

Data 15

(15) a. *ma- hengga   ncai aka nahu.*
    Pn/HAB- open door dem 1T
    'Who opened the door was me'

b. *ra-   kaă mpori aka nahu.*
   Pn/PERF- burn grass dem 1T
   'Who have burned the grass was me'

Examples (15.a) and (15.b) show *ma-* and *ra-* functions as nominalizer. For marker ra- it is still doubtful because it still requires a lot of data to prove it. However, for ma- plenty of data has been collected which shows that ma- really functions as a noun marker. Meanwhile, the data is more dominantly showing *ra-* as

perfective marker and marker for passive sentence construction because agents often appear as an oblique.

CONCLUSION

The noun in Bimanese can function as a head of predicate and verb can also be a head of a noun so that the noun is the predicate argument. The construction of nouns in Bimanese consists of noun markers namely *ma-* and *di-*. Both have the same function. But they also have one difference. Marker *di-* does not only function as nominalizer, but it also functions as marker of aspects when it is attached to verbs that function as predicates. Noun markers can function as relativizer, and aspect markers so that they are not only attached to verbs which function as subjects or objects, but also attached to verbs that function as predicates. When attached to a verb that functions as a predicate, the marker functions as agreement.

In this study, it is also known that Bimanese has a *ra-* marker that functions as a marker of a perfective aspect. However, there are some data showing that *ra-* functions as nominalizer so that the phenomenon must be examined more deeply.

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